

**Six years of UARS Microwave Limb Sounder HNO<sub>3</sub> observations:  
Seasonal, interhemispheric, and interannual variations in the lower  
stratosphere**

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**Abstract.** We present an overview of the seasonal, interhemispheric, and interannual variations in the distribution of  $\text{HNO}_3$  in the lower stratosphere based on measurements of gas-phase  $\text{HNO}_3$  made by the UARS Microwave Limb Sounder (MLS) through six complete annual cycles in both hemispheres. Outside of the winter polar regions, zonal-mean  $\text{HNO}_3$  mixing ratios on the 465-K potential temperature surface are comparable in the two hemispheres in all latitude bands and in all years examined. Except at high latitudes, interannual variability is minimal, and there is no significant hemispheric asymmetry in the overall  $\text{HNO}_3$  distribution or its seasonal cycle. Although the Antarctic experiences widespread severe denitrification, the MLS data indicate that the denitrification is not complete; that is, not all polar stratospheric cloud (PSC) particles sediment out of the lower stratosphere. Renitrification at 465 K during the mid- to late-winter period (when temperatures, though still low, are generally rising) is most likely achieved through a combination of PSC evaporation and continuing weak diabatic descent. Despite large interhemispheric and interannual differences in the extent and duration of PSC activity and denitrification,  $\text{HNO}_3$  recovers to similar values at the end of every winter in both the Arctic and the Antarctic. Zonal-mean  $\text{HNO}_3$  values for the two hemispheres are virtually indistinguishable for the latitudes equatorward of  $65^\circ$ , even during the winter months. Thus the effects of severe denitrification are confined in both space and time to the regions poleward of  $65^\circ\text{S}$  during the winter and early spring.

## 1. Introduction

The principal cause of the ozone loss that occurs in the polar lower stratosphere during late winter and early spring is known to be chlorine chemistry [e.g., *Solomon*, 1990]. Although ozone depletion over the Arctic has been significant in recent years [e.g., *Manney et al.*, 1996a; *Donovan et al.*, 1996; *Müller et al.*, 1996], it has never been as severe as that over Antarctica, despite the fact that abundances of reactive chlorine comparable to those over Antarctica have been observed throughout the Arctic vortex [*Waters et al.*, 1993]. Nitric acid ( $\text{HNO}_3$ ) plays a pivotal role in determining the cumulative amount of ozone loss [e.g., *Solomon*, 1990]. It is a key component of the polar stratospheric clouds (PSCs) that form in the low temperatures of polar winter, removing  $\text{HNO}_3$  from the gas phase. PSC particles provide surfaces on which heterogeneous reactions occur, facilitating the conversion of chlorine from its reservoir species (e.g.,  $\text{ClONO}_2$ ,  $\text{HCl}$ ) to the highly reactive forms that participate in the catalytic cycles of ozone destruction (e.g.,  $\text{ClO}$ ). On the other hand, photolysis of  $\text{HNO}_3$  vapor releases  $\text{NO}_2$ , enabling a major pathway for the deactivation of chlorine, via the reformation of  $\text{ClONO}_2$  from  $\text{ClO}$  and  $\text{NO}_2$ . Thus, as a central participant in both the activation and the deactivation of chlorine,  $\text{HNO}_3$  indirectly regulates the extent and duration of ozone depletion.

The abundance of available reactive nitrogen is reduced both through the direct incorporation of  $\text{HNO}_3$  into PSC particles and through the heterogeneous conversion of other nitrogen-containing species into  $\text{HNO}_3$  that is then bound in the PSCs [e.g., *Turco et al.*, 1989]. The  $\text{HNO}_3$  may be only temporarily sequestered and then released back to the gas phase as temperatures rise and the clouds evaporate. But if the PSC particles grow sufficiently large, appreciable sedimentation can occur, leading to denitrification, the permanent removal of reactive nitrogen from the lower stratosphere. A substantial reduction in the amount of available reactive nitrogen facilitates persistence of high  $\text{ClO}$  levels and thus allows the chlorine-catalyzed destruction of ozone to continue.

Significant dissimilarities in seasonal temperature patterns and vortex behavior exist between the northern and southern hemispheres [e.g., *Andrews*, 1989; *Waugh and Randel*,

1998]. On average, lower stratospheric temperatures are  $\sim 15\text{--}20$  K higher, and the vortex is weaker and more distorted, in the Arctic than in the Antarctic, leading to fewer and less persistent PSC events in the Arctic [Poole and Pitts, 1994]. The different meteorological conditions in the two hemispheres give rise to very dissimilar patterns of denitrification. In situ [e.g., Fahey *et al.*, 1990] and satellite [Roche *et al.*, 1994; Santee *et al.*, 1995] observations have revealed that both the temporal and the spatial scale of denitrification are substantially greater in the Antarctic than in the Arctic. These differences in the morphology of  $\text{HNO}_3$  have profound implications, since the interhemispheric differences in the severity of ozone loss can be largely ascribed to the moderating influence of high levels of  $\text{HNO}_3$  throughout the Arctic winter [e.g., Brune *et al.*, 1991; Santee *et al.*, 1995].

Much has been learned about the behavior of  $\text{HNO}_3$  since it was first detected in the stratosphere 30 years ago [Murcray *et al.*, 1968]. For instance, a wealth of information about its latitudinal gradients and seasonal variations, in particular its buildup and depletion in the winter polar regions, has been obtained from studies of ground-based, aircraft, and satellite data. However, none of these data sets have allowed the full hemispheric evolution of  $\text{HNO}_3$  over complete annual cycles to be studied. Several questions about the general behavior of  $\text{HNO}_3$  remain unanswered. One issue of relevance to stratospheric ozone depletion, particularly in the Antarctic, is whether there is closure in the  $\text{HNO}_3$  abundances over an annual cycle; that is, have  $\text{HNO}_3$  values at the end of the springtime recovery period rebounded to unperturbed levels or is the stratosphere experiencing a gradual decline in reactive nitrogen, if  $\text{HNO}_3$  lost through PSC sedimentation is not replaced? What is the degree of interannual variability in the  $\text{HNO}_3$  buildup, depletion, and recovery at high latitudes? Is the denitrification in the Antarctic vortex complete; that is, do all of the PSC particles that form eventually settle out? Does the severe denitrification in the Antarctic vortex have a strong influence on midlatitudes, either during or after the winter season? Is there a significant hemispheric asymmetry in the overall  $\text{HNO}_3$  distribution or its seasonal cycle?

With the long-term data record from the Upper Atmosphere Research Satellite (UARS),

we now have the opportunity to address these questions. Two instruments on UARS provided global measurements of gas-phase  $\text{HNO}_3$  in the lower stratosphere: the Cryogenic Limb Array Etalon Spectrometer (CLAES) and the Microwave Limb Sounder (MLS). CLAES made  $\text{HNO}_3$  measurements through two northern and one southern winter [Roche *et al.*, 1994] before its stored supply of cryogen was depleted. We present here the MLS  $\text{HNO}_3$  measurements. MLS has made  $\text{HNO}_3$  measurements through more than six complete annual cycles in both hemispheres, although its temporal sampling has become sparser in recent years. This MLS  $\text{HNO}_3$  data set, unprecedented in its scope, is uniquely suited to studying the seasonal, interhemispheric, and interannual variations in the distribution of  $\text{HNO}_3$  in the lower stratosphere.

## 2. Measurement Description

### 2.1. MLS Data Coverage

MLS has been acquiring millimeter-wavelength emission measurements of the stratosphere in both hemispheres since late September 1991. The microwave limb sounding technique and the MLS instrument are described in detail by Waters [1993] and Barath *et al.* [1993], respectively. Advantages of this technique include the measurement of thermal emission, so that observations can be obtained both day and night, and the use of long wavelengths, so that the data are not degraded by the presence of PSCs or other stratospheric aerosols (see, e.g., Figure 3 of Waters *et al.* [1998]). The latter point is particularly important since  $\text{HNO}_3$  is a major component of PSCs and since the time period examined here encompasses the dissipation phase of the aerosol associated with the eruption of Mount Pinatubo.

The MLS pointing geometry together with the inclination of the UARS orbit leads to a measurement latitudinal coverage extending from  $80^\circ$  on one side of the equator to  $34^\circ$  on the other. The UARS orbit plane precesses in such a way that all local solar times are sampled in

~36 days (a “UARS month”), getting ~20 min earlier each day at a given latitude. To keep MLS (and other instruments) on the shaded side of the spacecraft, a 180° yaw maneuver is performed at the end of every UARS month. Thus 10 times per year MLS alternates between viewing northern and southern high latitudes, with the first day of a particular UARS month occurring ~5 days earlier each year. As a consequence, on a particular day of the year MLS may have been viewing northern high latitudes in some years but southern high latitudes in other years.

At the time of writing, MLS has observed six southern hemisphere and seven northern hemisphere winters. However, problems with the UARS solar array caused the MLS instrument to be turned off during much of the early southern winter observing period in 1992. By early 1994, the MLS antenna scanning mechanism began to exhibit signs of wear, and March, April, May, and July 1994 were primarily devoted to testing new operational modes, with significantly reduced data sampling. Similarly, a combination of continuing difficulties with the MLS scan system and problems with the spacecraft batteries and solar array led to severely limited data-gathering from October 1994 through July 1995. Various modifications to the operation of the antenna scanning mechanism were implemented in February 1995, and in June of that year an MLS operational schedule consisting of (typically) two days of scanning followed by one day of “rest” was adopted to conserve lifetime. In May 1995, the solar array was parked because of problems with both the primary and the redundant drive systems. This resulted in a reduction in available power, and UARS began operating in an instrument power sharing mode whereby MLS is periodically turned off. In May 1997 the UARS onboard computer experienced an autonomous shutdown, stressing the batteries and prompting one (of three) to be removed from service. Because of the continuing degradation in the UARS power situation, MLS measurements were collected on only six days total during the months of May and June. After June 1997, the 63-GHz radiometer used to provide tangent pressure and temperature information during nominal operations was turned off to save power. Although  $\text{HNO}_3$  and other standard products are still retrieved, offsets between these data and

those from the previous years are presently under investigation, and no data obtained after June 1997 are discussed here.

## 2.2. MLS HNO<sub>3</sub> Data Quality

The measurement of HNO<sub>3</sub> was not a primary MLS objective. However, a significant HNO<sub>3</sub> feature situated just outside the spectral region used to measure ozone imposes a weak slope through the 205-GHz ozone band that can be used to retrieve profiles of gas-phase HNO<sub>3</sub> over a limited vertical range in the lower stratosphere. MLS HNO<sub>3</sub> measurements from precursory retrieval algorithms were first presented by *Santee et al.* [1995]; version 4 MLS HNO<sub>3</sub> data for the 1995–1996 and 1996–1997 Arctic winters have been presented by *Santee et al.* [1996b] and *Santee et al.* [1997], respectively. In addition, *Santee et al.* [1998] present version 4 HNO<sub>3</sub> data from the 1992–1996 Antarctic winters; more extensive information about the HNO<sub>3</sub> retrievals and their quality and resolution is also included in that paper. Further details about the quality of the MLS data can also be obtained from the NASA Goddard Space Flight Center Distributed Access Archive Center (DAAC) as well as the MLS web page (<http://mls.jpl.nasa.gov>).

Preliminary validation studies indicate that the version 4 MLS HNO<sub>3</sub> data are scientifically useful on the 100-, 46-, and 22-hPa retrieval surfaces, where the estimated precisions for an individual profile are approximately 2.0, 3.0, and 4.5 ppbv, respectively. The precisions, estimated from several months of data, were based on the observed variability in a narrow latitude band centered around the equator that was selected to minimize the effects of natural atmospheric variability. The true precisions may be slightly better than these estimates since the actual atmospheric variation is not completely negligible. These empirical precisions are generally consistent with uncertainties derived theoretically by propagating the measurement noise through the retrieval algorithm. Although the computed uncertainties consist of both random and systematic components, the random (noise) components usually dominate for HNO<sub>3</sub>, which has a relatively weak signal (compared with ozone, for example).

Since in this paper we will be most concerned with relative variations, the systematic errors are of less importance. The noise contribution to the uncertainty can be reduced by averaging together individual measurements. Most of the results shown in this study have been derived through averaging many individual data points, both zonally and temporally, and are therefore characterized by much better precision values ( $\sim 0.5$  ppbv or less) than those given above.

Initial comparisons (over a limited data set) with colocated UARS CLAES observations [Kumer *et al.*, 1996] show that there is good correspondence in the morphology of the CLAES and MLS  $\text{HNO}_3$  fields. However, the version 4 MLS data appear to overestimate winter polar  $\text{HNO}_3$  abundances (in the non-denitrified areas) by several ppbv; this behavior is seen at all three retrieval pressure levels but is particularly pronounced at 22 hPa, where the difference between the MLS and CLAES fields can exceed 5 ppbv. Preliminary comparisons with other correlative data sets also indicate that MLS overestimates  $\text{HNO}_3$  abundances near the profile peak ( $\sim 25$  km). Development and validation of improved data processing algorithms for MLS  $\text{HNO}_3$  are in progress.

### **3. Morphology and Synoptic Behavior**

#### **3.1. Daily Maps**

As discussed in section 2.1, in any given year UARS performs 10 yaw maneuvers, so that MLS spends 5 UARS months viewing northern high latitudes and 5 viewing southern high latitudes. To examine the seasonal changes in  $\text{HNO}_3$  and their repeatability from year to year, we have selected representative days from each yaw period. In an effort to maximize comparability, we have tried to choose days for which MLS data exist in all years under consideration. However, this process is complicated by the 5-day drift in the start of the UARS months from one year to the next, the data gaps arising from problems with the UARS solar array and the MLS antenna scanning mechanism, and the continuing deterioration in the UARS power situation, which has led to ever-sparser temporal coverage in the last few years.



In general, it was necessary to vary the dates slightly from year to year, with the largest range between dates in different years being 4 days, but for some yaw periods missing years were unavoidable. Each yaw period has at least 4 and at most 6 years represented. The selected days for the southern hemisphere are compiled in Table 1 and their corresponding maps are shown in Plate 1. The maps for each year are arranged to begin with early-April, at the beginning of the southern winter season, and end with mid-January, in southern summer. Similarly, the selected days for the northern hemisphere are compiled in Table 2 and shown in Plate 2, starting in northern fall and ending in northern summer for each year.

The MLS data in Plates 1 and 2 were gridded by binning and averaging 24 hours of data. The data were then interpolated onto the 465-K potential temperature ( $\theta$ ) surface (using United Kingdom Meteorological Office (UKMO) temperatures [Swinbank and O'Neill, 1994]) to reduce the effects of adiabatic vertical motions on the comparisons of data from different seasons and different years. The 465-K  $\theta$  surface corresponds to a pressure range of  $\sim 30$  to 60 hPa for the low temperatures inside the winter polar vortex and  $\sim 60$  to 90 hPa for typical summertime temperatures. We primarily focus on the behavior of  $\text{HNO}_3$  at these levels because of the apparently significant high bias in the MLS data at higher altitudes (see section 2.2). Superimposed on the maps are (in white) two contours of potential vorticity (PV) derived from the UKMO analyses to illustrate the size, shape, and strength of the polar vortex and (in black) two contours of UKMO temperature to represent the approximate thresholds for the formation of type I (195 K) and type II (188 K) PSCs.

Much can be observed about the distribution of  $\text{HNO}_3$  in the lower stratosphere from inspection of Plates 1 and 2. Most generally,  $\text{HNO}_3$  abundances increase from the equator to the pole (with the exception of the PSC-formation regions, discussed further below) in both hemispheres and in all seasons. This latitudinal variation in  $\text{HNO}_3$  has been noted previously in aircraft [e.g., Lazrus and Gandrud, 1974; Murcray *et al.*, 1975; Coffey *et al.*, 1981; Girard *et al.*, 1982; Williams *et al.*, 1982; Karcher *et al.*, 1988; Toon *et al.*, 1992; Pfeilsticker *et al.*, 1997] and satellite [e.g., Gille and Russell, 1984; Austin *et al.*, 1986; Russell *et al.*, 1988;

*Roche et al.*, 1994] data and is attributed to increasing photochemical destruction at lower latitudes.

One of the most striking features of Plates 1 and 2 is the existence of a pronounced seasonal cycle in  $\text{HNO}_3$  at the higher latitudes in both hemispheres, whereas the seasonal cycle at lower latitudes is much weaker. Consistent with the seasonal patterns, although a high degree of longitudinal variability is evident in the high-latitude  $\text{HNO}_3$  during winter, these variations are greatly reduced in spring and summer and are insignificant at low latitudes at all times of year. The seasonal dependence of the  $\text{HNO}_3$  abundances at high latitudes, with a winter maximum and a summer minimum, has been described previously by *Lazrus and Gandrud* [1974], *Murcray et al.* [1975], *Coffey et al.* [1981], *Austin et al.* [1986], *Roche et al.* [1994], *Gille et al.* [1996], *Notholt et al.* [1997], and *Slusser et al.* [1998], among others. The smaller-amplitude seasonal dependence in  $\text{HNO}_3$  at midlatitudes has been discussed by *Rinsland et al.* [1991] and *Jones et al.* [1994].

The strong seasonal cycle in 465-K  $\text{HNO}_3$  mixing ratios at higher latitudes, and its absence at lower latitudes, arises from a combination of factors. Normally, the distribution of  $\text{HNO}_3$  is determined by gas-phase processes: production by three-body recombination of OH and  $\text{NO}_2$  and loss through photolysis and reaction with OH. However, other processes come into play in the low-sunlight conditions of the wintertime middle and high latitudes, where the photochemical lifetime of  $\text{HNO}_3$  exceeds a month [*Austin et al.*, 1986]. Several investigators have noted that conventional gas-phase photochemical/dynamical models failed to accurately simulate the wintertime enhancement of  $\text{HNO}_3$  at middle and high latitudes in the lower stratosphere observed in balloon [*Evans et al.*, 1985] and satellite [*Austin et al.*, 1986; *Jackman et al.*, 1987; *Hofmann and Solomon*, 1989; *Rood et al.*, 1990, 1993] measurements. These studies postulated the existence of a fast heterogeneous source of  $\text{HNO}_3$  operating in and near the region of polar night in the lower stratosphere, such as the hydrolysis of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  on background sulfate aerosol. Laboratory experiments [*Reihs et al.*, 1990] have indicated that this reaction produces gaseous  $\text{HNO}_3$  even under conditions of enhanced sulfate

aerosol loading. Heterogeneous conversion of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  to  $\text{HNO}_3$  on sulfate aerosols (or on PSCs, followed by evaporation) has also been invoked to explain large column  $\text{HNO}_3$  abundances in the Arctic measured by airborne [Mankin *et al.*, 1990; Toon *et al.*, 1992; Blom *et al.*, 1995] and ground-based [Notholt *et al.*, 1997; Slusser *et al.*, 1998] instruments. Similarly, Keys *et al.* [1993] and Van Allen *et al.* [1995] argued that observed increases in ground-based  $\text{HNO}_3$  column amounts during autumn in Antarctica are attributable to  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  conversion on background aerosols.

This process may be particularly important at slightly higher altitudes, but it also has a strong influence on 465-K  $\text{HNO}_3$  mixing ratios, both directly and through dynamical effects. As the polar regions fall into darkness after the autumnal equinox, radiative processes rapidly cool the polar stratosphere, the vortex spins up, and strong downward motion over this area begins [Schoeberl and Hartmann, 1991]. During late autumn and early winter, the lower stratospheric vortex is characterized by strong diabatic descent but very little latitudinal mixing across its boundary [Manney *et al.*, 1994b]. The descending air carries with it the chemical composition of regions higher in the stratosphere; since the peak of the  $\text{HNO}_3$  profile is located at higher altitudes ( $\sim 25$  km,  $\sim 30$  hPa), high  $\text{HNO}_3$  concentrations in the interior and strong  $\text{HNO}_3$  gradients at the edge of the vortex develop at 465 K as the vortex strengthens. This sharp increase in  $\text{HNO}_3$  across the vortex boundary has been clearly demonstrated in aircraft column measurements [e.g., Toon *et al.*, 1992; Blom *et al.*, 1994, 1995] and also other satellite measurements [Roche *et al.*, 1994]. As is evident in the maps of Plates 1 and 2, in the absence of other effects such as PSC formation, high  $\text{HNO}_3$  values correspond closely with high PV values and are excellent indicators of vortex size and shape.

Thus the photochemical conditions in the region of polar night (decreased  $\text{HNO}_3$  photolysis and increased  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  being converted into  $\text{HNO}_3$ ) combined with enhancement via diabatic descent lead to a wintertime maximum in  $\text{HNO}_3$  at middle and high latitudes. In contrast, continuous photolysis during polar summer leads to very low  $\text{HNO}_3$  concentrations. The lower latitudes do not experience the effects of either polar night/day or unmixed vertical

transport of air with higher  $\text{HNO}_3$  mixing ratios from above, and consequently the  $\text{HNO}_3$  seasonal cycle there is minimal.

$\text{HNO}_3$  mixing ratios at 465 K in the winter polar regions are primarily controlled by meteorological conditions: the strength of the diabatic descent, the permeability of the vortex, and the extent and duration of low temperatures (which govern PSC formation). In the Arctic especially there is a high degree of interannual variability in the strength and longevity of the polar vortex [Manney *et al.*, 1994a; Dahlberg and Bowman, 1994; Waugh and Randel, 1998], the occurrence and persistence of low temperatures [e.g., Zurek *et al.*, 1996], and the frequency and duration of PSC activity [Poole and Pitts, 1994]. These factors produce a concomitantly large interannual variability in  $\text{HNO}_3$  sequestration and removal. For example, in mid-December the morphology of  $\text{HNO}_3$  changes considerably from year to year (Plate 2). For the most part, the northern hemisphere winters since the launch of UARS have been characterized by lower temperatures and a stronger, more isolated vortex in the lower stratosphere than in the majority of previous northern winters dating back to 1978 [Zurek *et al.*, 1996]. However, in some years the below-average temperatures and anomalously-strong vortex have not developed until later in the winter. In mid-December 1991, the lower-stratospheric PV gradients were fairly strong but the temperatures had not yet dropped below typical  $\text{HNO}_3$  condensation values ( $\sim 195$  K or below) [Zurek *et al.*, 1996]; a combination of vertical transport, segregation of vortex from lower-latitude air, and lack of PSC events led to uniformly high  $\text{HNO}_3$  mixing ratios throughout the vortex interior. Although 465-K temperatures and PV gradients in mid-December 1992 were similar to those of 1991 [Zurek *et al.*, 1996],  $\text{HNO}_3$  mixing ratios inside the vortex were not as uniformly high. The 1994–95 early winter was unusually cold, with 465-K temperatures hovering near the type II PSC formation threshold by mid-December [Zurek *et al.*, 1996], and  $\text{HNO}_3$  was substantially depleted in the low-temperature region. The 1996–97 early winter was unusually warm, with an extremely weak vortex in the lower stratosphere [Coy *et al.*, 1997], and in mid-December the high  $\text{HNO}_3$  abundances arising from transport were still being diluted

through mixing of  $\text{HNO}_3$ -poor air from low latitudes into the vortex.

Much less interannual variability in vortex evolution occurs in the southern hemisphere, particularly in the early winter [O'Neill and Pope, 1990; Waugh and Randel, 1998]. As a consequence, the  $\text{HNO}_3$  behavior is fairly consistent every year (Plate 1). Although the location of the cold region in mid-June varies from year to year, the overall pattern of a confined area of severely-depleted gas-phase  $\text{HNO}_3$  coincident with the lowest temperatures and banded by high  $\text{HNO}_3$  values inside a relatively well-developed vortex occurs in every year. The  $\text{HNO}_3$  morphology is even more uniform from year to year in late-August. The general picture of a "core" characterized by low  $\text{HNO}_3$  values and small latitudinal gradients surrounded by a "collar" characterized by high  $\text{HNO}_3$  values and large latitudinal gradients was first described by G. Toon *et al.* [1989] Toon *et al.* [1989a] from aircraft column measurements and is also evident in UARS CLAES data [Roche *et al.*, 1994].

Little year-to-year variation is expected in the summertime  $\text{HNO}_3$  distribution, which in general is determined by gas-phase photochemistry as described above. However, several modeling studies [e.g., Hofmann and Solomon, 1989; Brasseur and Granier, 1992] have demonstrated the potential for the heterogeneous hydrolysis of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  to cause substantial increases in  $\text{HNO}_3$  abundances under conditions of enhanced sulfate aerosol loading following large volcanic eruptions. Profiles of  $\text{HNO}_3$  measured at both northern [Webster *et al.*, 1994] and southern [Rinsland *et al.*, 1994] midlatitudes after the Mount Pinatubo eruption compare much better with models that include this reaction. It is possible that the decline in  $\text{HNO}_3$  concentrations after 1993 apparent in the maps for mid-January (Plate 1) and, to a lesser extent, for mid-July (Plate 2) is related to the slow decay of the Pinatubo aerosol cloud. This is consistent with the gradual decreases in ground-based  $\text{HNO}_3$  column amounts that have been observed at southern midlatitudes [Koike *et al.*, 1994] and northern low [David *et al.*, 1994] and high [Slusser *et al.*, 1998] latitudes as the stratosphere recovered from Pinatubo-induced  $\text{HNO}_3$  enhancement. Kumer *et al.* [1996] also reported a distinct decreasing trend in UARS CLAES  $\text{HNO}_3$  abundances, especially in the southern hemisphere, and attributed it to the

diminishing influence of heterogeneous reactions as the Pinatubo aerosols settled out. We too have observed decreasing trends in the MLS  $\text{HNO}_3$  abundances at midlatitudes, a more detailed analysis of which is beyond the scope of this paper. The trends in the MLS midlatitude data have also been discussed by *Randel et al.* [1998] (W. J. Randel et al., Space-time patterns of trends in stratospheric constituents derived from UARS measurements, submitted to *Journal of Geophysical Research*, 1998).

### 3.2. Climatological Fields

To explore the interhemispheric differences in synoptic behavior more generally, we have produced “climatological”  $\text{HNO}_3$  fields from the days represented in Plates 1 and 2. Again, each yaw period has at least 4 and at most 6 years represented. Thus, for example, the mid-December climatology is derived by averaging together 6 days of data, and the mid-July climatology is derived by averaging together 4 days of data. Possibly a more traditional approach to establishing climatologies would have been to average together all of the available days in a given month; however, this approach would have biased the results toward the earlier years, since the data sampling in later years has become quite sparse. Thus we have chosen to create the climatologies from a single day in each year where available. The climatological fields are shown in Plate 3 for both the southern and northern hemispheres. In addition to averaging together the MLS  $\text{HNO}_3$  data for these days, we have also averaged the temperature and the PV fields from the UKMO analyses. These contours are overlaid on the climatology maps as they were on the maps for individual days.

Comparison of the early-April and early-October climatologies (Plate 3) indicates a slightly higher degree of organized descent down to the 465-K level at the beginning of winter in the southern hemisphere than in the northern hemisphere, where in many years a summertime  $\text{HNO}_3$  morphology still persists at this time (see Plate 2). In the southern hemisphere, the largest differences from the climatology (not shown) occur in 1992, the year for which the vortex was the most well-developed this early in the winter season.

In general, in the southern hemisphere the June and August data exhibit the largest deviations from their respective climatologies, reflecting significant interannual differences in PSC formation and distribution. Since these deviations from climatology can be difficult to track by eye, we include a plot for the mid-June deviations in Plate 4. At the 465-K level in mid-June, the vortex is still wobbly, the area of low temperatures is still fairly confined, and the location of the cold region can vary from one side of the pole to the other; consequently, the deviations from climatology are large in every year, with maximum deviations occurring in the collar region on any given day. Similarly, in late-August the extensive cold regions are not quite concentric with the vortex, and small variations from year to year in where the collar and the denitrified regions adjoin also lead to large deviations from the climatological values (not shown).

A parallel situation is seen in the northern hemisphere, with large interannual differences in PSC activity again leading to the largest deviations from their respective climatologies in the winter months of December and February (not shown). In addition, the Arctic vortex is subject to considerable distortion through planetary wave activity and in any given year is therefore likely to be centered off the pole and highly elongated; thus even years with similar temperature/PSC conditions may display large differences in the locations of high  $\text{HNO}_3$  values. While gas-phase  $\text{HNO}_3$  loss is neither severe nor widespread in late-February in any year, the climatology (Plate 3) does exhibit lower  $\text{HNO}_3$  mixing ratios in the preferred PSC formation regions in the corridor between Greenland and Scandinavia, and in the area poleward of Scandinavia.

That the wintertime behavior of  $\text{HNO}_3$  is distinctly different in the two hemispheres is clearly illustrated by comparison of the late-August and early-November climatologies in the southern hemisphere with the late-February and late-April climatologies in the northern hemisphere. Because MLS is sensitive to  $\text{HNO}_3$  only in the gas-phase, the deficit in late-August, when 465-K temperatures in every year were still low enough for PSCs to continue sequestering  $\text{HNO}_3$ , is not in itself proof of denitrification. However, by early-November the

temperatures in all years had warmed well above PSC existence thresholds. The strength of the PV gradients in November, as indicated in the maps in Plate 1 (and in the averaged PV field in Plate 3), implies that the vortex was still intact at 465 K, inhibiting mixing between polar and midlatitude air. Therefore, we interpret the enduring depression in gas-phase  $\text{HNO}_3$  over Antarctica in November to be evidence of denitrification. In contrast, although gas-phase  $\text{HNO}_3$  loss is observed on individual days in the Arctic, it is less intense, more localized, and more transient, with no suggestion of significant denitrification in the late-February climatology. This work extends the conclusions of *Santee et al.* [1995], which were based on MLS  $\text{HNO}_3$  data from a single winter in both hemispheres.

Another disparity between the  $\text{HNO}_3$  morphologies in the two hemispheres is that the peak mixing ratios attained during winter are larger in the Arctic. In the north,  $\text{HNO}_3$  abundances are largest near the center of the vortex, where diabatic descent tends to be strongest [*Manney et al.*, 1994b]. In the south, they are largest in the collar region, both because the vortex core is severely denitrified and because the strongest descent in the lower stratosphere occurs along the vortex edge [*Manney et al.*, 1994b]. Although diabatic descent is more vigorous throughout the winter in the Arctic than in the Antarctic [*Manney et al.*, 1994b], in the southern hemisphere the effects of unmixed descent are visible at 465 K both earlier in the fall, since the vortex deepens more rapidly [*Manney and Zurek*, 1993] and provides a strong barrier to latitudinal mixing sooner than in the north, and later in the spring, since PV gradients remain strong and unmixed descent continues for a much longer period than in the north [*Manney et al.*, 1994b; *Abrams et al.*, 1996a, b]. Thus, in the absence of denitrification, the downward transport of  $\text{HNO}_3$ -rich air in a confined area over the course of the winter would be expected to produce  $\text{HNO}_3$  mixing ratios at the 465-K level in the Antarctic as high as or higher than those in the Arctic. However, denitrification may affect  $\text{HNO}_3$  abundances even in PSC-free regions, if transport processes inside the vortex lead to dilution of the high  $\text{HNO}_3$  concentrations in unperturbed areas as denitrified air is mixed in.

Large-scale polar processing and ozone depletion cease with the breakup of the vortex



in late winter or early spring. Northern hemisphere winters in particular are distinguished by a large variation in the duration of a strong vortex in the lower stratosphere [Manney *et al.*, 1994a; Dahlberg and Bowman, 1994; Waugh and Randel, 1998]. Most commonly, the final warming occurs and the vortex dissipates in March, with small remnants of high PV persisting in the lower stratosphere into early April, after erosion of the main vortex [Manney *et al.*, 1994a, b; Dahlberg and Bowman, 1994; Waugh and Randel, 1998]. These lingering vortex fragments are evident in the late-April maps in Plate 2, illustrating that the correlation of  $\text{HNO}_3$  with high PV values is maintained throughout the winter. In 1997, however, the vortex remained substantially intact in the lower stratosphere into early May, exhibiting unprecedented longevity [Coy *et al.*, 1997]. The unusually large vortex area in 1997 tends to bias the late-April climatology (Plate 3), which as a result is perhaps somewhat less representative of the typical situation than the other climatologies.

Finally, we find that the summertime  $\text{HNO}_3$  distribution is very similar in both hemispheres (compare the mid-January and mid-July maps in Plate 3). In addition, in both hemispheres the summertime data exhibit the smallest deviations from their respective climatologies. For the Antarctic, the mid-January deviations are also shown in Plate 4. Despite the large deviations from climatology in every winter (exceeding  $\pm 5$  ppbv in mid-June and late-August), the summertime values are fairly small in every year. Even when expressed in terms of percentages (not shown), the midsummer deviations from climatology are considerably smaller than the midwinter values. Comparable deviations are seen for the Arctic in mid-July (not shown). The fact that the deviations are essentially similar in both hemispheres and in every year implies that, although there are large interhemispheric and interannual differences in the extent and duration of PSC activity and denitrification, the  $\text{HNO}_3$  at high latitudes always recovers to about the same values.

## 4. Overview of Mean Evolution

We now explore the latitudinal, seasonal, interannual, and interhemispheric variations in  $\text{HNO}_3$  through the use of zonal means rather than mapped data. In Plate 5 the MLS data points for each of the individual days in Plates 1 and 2 have been binned into  $5^\circ$  latitude bands and averaged. Again we see that  $\text{HNO}_3$  abundances increase with latitude in all seasons and in both hemispheres and attain their maximum values in the polar regions during winter, except in areas of strong PSC activity and denitrification. Winters in the Arctic are characterized by large interannual variability, with the mixing ratios at the highest latitudes differing by up to a factor of 2 from year to year in mid-December and late-February. In the Antarctic, while there is significant interannual variability in the extent of  $\text{HNO}_3$  sequestration in mid-June, in late-August in every year the  $\text{HNO}_3$  mixing ratios are extremely low at the highest latitudes. However, a large degree of interannual variability does occur in the collar region in late-August, as is evident in Plate 1. Small differences from year to year at the highest latitudes in early-November and late-April reflect differences in the degree of denitrification and extent of residual vortex fragments in the southern and northern hemisphere, respectively. At all other latitudes and seasons the interannual variability is minimal ( $\sim 2$  ppbv or less).

### 4.1. Zonal Mean Time Evolution

Up to this point we have examined results from individual days. While this approach provides snapshots of the  $\text{HNO}_3$  distribution in different seasons, it does not allow a detailed look at the  $\text{HNO}_3$  evolution over the course of the year. To this end, in Plate 6 we show time series of 465-K MLS  $\text{HNO}_3$  as a function of latitude over complete annual cycles, starting in early winter (April in the south, October in the north) each year. Because the Arctic vortex is more distorted and less concentric with latitude circles than the Antarctic vortex, zonal means of this kind are less representative of actual vortex behavior in the north; nevertheless, it is still instructive to compare the progression of zonal-mean  $\text{HNO}_3$  values in the two hemispheres. In general, differences in the development of high vortex  $\text{HNO}_3$  at 465 K are relatively small at

the very beginning of winter, but the behavior in the two hemispheres diverges as the season proceeds. By about May 20 in the south and November 20 in the north (50 days after the start of the plots), the gradients in the high-latitude  $\text{HNO}_3$  have become steeper in the south, where the stronger vortex provides a more effective barrier to mixing with lower-latitude air, than in the north, where the vortex is less zonally symmetric. Although severe denitrification ( $\text{HNO}_3 < 3$  ppbv) is never apparent in the north, it starts to become evident on about June 20 (80 days after the start of the plot) every year in the south. The precise end of the effects of severe denitrification has not been captured in the data in most years, but the zonal mean values at the highest latitudes have typically begun to recover to values  $> 3$  ppbv by the last week in October (210 days after the start of the plot), except in the last two years of measurements.

Zonal-mean climatological fields, shown in Plate 7, were produced by averaging together the results for the individual years. Because a particular UARS month starts about 5 days earlier in each succeeding year (see section 2.1), the data gaps between the south-looking (top) or north-looking (bottom) UARS months are shortened when several years of measurements are averaged together; “edge effects” arise at the month boundaries where data from fewer years contribute to the average. These climatologies encapsulate the general patterns of  $\text{HNO}_3$  behavior discussed above and in section 3.

Next, we evaluate the extent of interannual and interhemispheric differences in the  $\text{HNO}_3$  seasonal cycle by examining daily means calculated in various latitude bands. Results for both hemispheres are shown in Plate 8, where the data have been binned into  $5^\circ$  latitude bands and averaged. As discussed in the previous section, the amplitude of the seasonal cycle diminishes toward the equator, with a seasonal signature of only  $\sim 2$  ppbv present in the zonal means for the  $40\text{--}45^\circ$  bands. Even weaker seasonal cycles are seen at lower latitudes (not shown). At middle and low latitudes the seasonal maxima and minima occur during the winter and summer months, respectively, in each hemisphere.

At the lower latitudes, the interannual variability at a given time of year appears to be comparable to the seasonal variation for a given year ( $\sim 2$  ppbv or less). However, assessment

of the year-to-year variability is complicated by the fact that the data display a yaw-cycle dependence, whereby mixing ratios tend to be larger in the middle than at the beginning or end of a UARS month. Similar artifacts have been noted in some aspects of the MLS temperature [Fishbein *et al.*, 1996], ozone [Froidevaux *et al.*, 1996], and water [Lahoz *et al.*, 1996] retrievals. Thus, care must be taken to compare data from different years at corresponding points in the yaw periods. In addition, some of the differences between years that appear to arise from interannual variability may actually be associated with Pinatubo effects, as mentioned above. The fact that only minor differences were found between profiles obtained at the same time of year by LIMS in 1979 and the ATMOS experiment on Spacelab 3 in 1985 at 47°S and 29°N also led Russell *et al.* [1988] to conclude that interannual variations at these latitudes are small.

The amount of interannual variability is somewhat larger at southern high latitudes, where the more well-developed vortex in early-April 1992 is reflected in higher average HNO<sub>3</sub> mixing ratios and where different degrees of PSC development affect the early-June values. Despite these early-winter differences, in every year severe HNO<sub>3</sub> depletion has occurred by July in the 75–80°S and 70–75°S bands. By the beginning of the next south-viewing period in early- to mid-August, the very low HNO<sub>3</sub> abundances have begun to rebound; they continue to increase into the following south-viewing period in early- to mid-November. By the end of that period, HNO<sub>3</sub> concentrations have returned to their summertime values and remain essentially constant through January before beginning to increase again in the austral fall (mid- to late-March). The patterns of HNO<sub>3</sub> loss and recovery are similar, although less dramatic, in the 65–70°S band.

Northern high latitudes display an even greater degree of interannual variability. Mid-December HNO<sub>3</sub> abundances were large in 1991, when the lower-stratospheric vortex was strong but temperatures were relatively high [Zurek *et al.*, 1996], and small in 1996, when the lower-stratospheric vortex was weak [Coy *et al.*, 1997]. HNO<sub>3</sub> levels remained high in March in 1992 and 1994, after relatively warm winters, but dropped considerably in 1995

after an unusually cold winter [Zurek *et al.*, 1996]. We will discuss the comparisons between the zonal mean behavior in the two hemispheres, and their implications, in more detail in section 4.3.

## 4.2. The Antarctic Winter Polar Vortex

Of course, looking at zonal means is problematic at high latitudes during winter because, as discussed earlier,  $\text{HNO}_3$  is strongly correlated with the polar vortex, which is not concentric with latitude circles even in the southern hemisphere. Therefore, in Plate 9 we show  $\text{HNO}_3$  averaged within PV contours representative of Antarctic vortex “inner core” and “collar” regions at the 465-K level. The two regions do not abut. The collar region was delimited by  $0.25 \times 10^{-4} \text{ K m}^2 \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1} < \text{PV} < 0.40 \times 10^{-4} \text{ K m}^2 \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , where the outermost contour represents a typical definition of the vortex edge during winter and coincides with a strong barrier to mixing [Manney *et al.*, 1994b] and the innermost contour was chosen to generally encompass the region of high  $\text{HNO}_3$  along the vortex rim. In selecting the inner core boundary criterion,  $\text{PV} > 0.48 \times 10^{-4} \text{ K m}^2 \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , a balance had to be struck between a contour that was well poleward of the collar region and one that maintained its identity into the spring. Note that averages over the vortex inner core region are also averages over an annulus, since MLS data coverage does not extend poleward of  $\sim 80^\circ$ . UKMO average and minimum temperatures in these regions are also shown. We focus here on the three years (1992–1994) for which MLS data sampling is most continuous, although data for the other years are included for completeness.

As seen in the highest-latitude zonal means (Plate 8), the vortex inner-core average mixing ratios drop sharply in early June; measured values in this region are very low by late-June/early-July, when average temperatures fall below 188 K. The correlation of the  $\text{HNO}_3$  behavior with temperature during this time period, and its implications for PSC phase and composition, is explored in detail in Santee *et al.* [1998]. The results of Plate 9 suggest that  $\text{HNO}_3$  abundances in the vortex inner core increase slightly sometime during the

mid-winter gap between south-looking observing periods. They then continue to increase at least into September, if not later. Thus the  $\text{HNO}_3$  at 465 K already shows signs of recovery in mid-winter, even though temperatures at this level are still quite low. We will return to this point below.

Consistent with these indications of mid- to late-winter  $\text{HNO}_3$  replenishment, *Toon et al.* [1989a] reported a significant increasing trend in the  $\text{HNO}_3$  burden in the vortex core throughout September 1987 and suggested either evaporation of frozen forms as the vortex warmed or descent as possible explanations. Similarly, measurements by *Coffey et al.* [1989] also showed a small increase in  $\text{HNO}_3$  vertical column amounts inside the vortex during September 1987. More recently, 1992 UARS CLAES data at 46 hPa also suggest a small increase in zonal-mean  $\text{HNO}_3$  mixing ratios in the 72–80°S band from mid-August to mid-September, followed by recovery to summertime values by the end of November [*Roche et al.*, 1994]. On the other hand,  $\text{HNO}_3$  column amounts over Arrival Heights (78°S) presented by *Keys et al.* [1993] exhibited no particular trend from the end of August until mid-October, 1991, after which an increase was observed that was partially attributed to the evaporation of remaining PSCs and to meridional mixing during vortex breakup. In addition, *Klein et al.* [1996] saw no change in the  $\text{HNO}_3$  content at 19 km over McMurdo Station (78°S) during the period from September 4 to October 8, 1994.

Two sets of ground-based measurements provide information about the seasonal variations in  $\text{HNO}_3$  over the South Pole. *Van Allen et al.* [1995] report total  $\text{HNO}_3$  column abundance over an 11-month period from mid-January to mid-November 1992, although  $\text{HNO}_3$  could be retrieved on only 18 days in all during this period. They observed a trend to higher  $\text{HNO}_3$  column amounts in March 1992, with high values persisting through June 9; a sharp decline occurred between that date and the next  $\text{HNO}_3$  retrieval on June 27.  $\text{HNO}_3$  column values then continued to fall in July. No  $\text{HNO}_3$  retrievals were reported by *Van Allen et al.* [1995] for August or September 1992, but a single measurement at the beginning of October suggested no change in the total  $\text{HNO}_3$  column over the South Pole from that

observed at the end of July, and measurements in mid-October and mid-November implied that the  $\text{HNO}_3$  column had recovered to only about 50% of the summertime (January/February) values.

*de Zafra et al.* [1997] present South Pole  $\text{HNO}_3$  vertical profiles and column densities over the range from  $\sim 15$  to 48 km for a 9-month period from mid-April 1993 to mid-January 1994, although in this case measurements were made on only 63 days altogether. They observed a small increase in the peak mixing ratio (at  $\sim 23$ – $24$  km) between the start of their 1993 observations in mid-April and late May, which they interpret as the final stage of a more pronounced increase that occurred earlier in the fall. Although not fully comparable, the 1993 465-K MLS vortex inner-core averages (and zonal means in the  $75$ – $80^\circ\text{S}$  band) and the *de Zafra et al.* [1997] South Pole data exhibit very good agreement, in both the timing and the magnitude of  $\text{HNO}_3$  decreases. *de Zafra et al.* [1997] report  $\text{HNO}_3$  mixing ratios at 20 km of  $\sim 11$  ppbv in mid-May just prior to the onset of depletion, dropping to  $< 0.5$  ppbv by early July. However, although the 1993 data of *de Zafra et al.* [1997] indicated that the  $\text{HNO}_3$  mixing ratios at 20 km (as well as the integrated column densities) over the South Pole began to rebound in late-August, the recovery was slow.  $\text{HNO}_3$  abundances continued to increase throughout the spring, reaching 4.5 ppbv in mid-December, after which they briefly leveled off; the last few days of data in mid-January 1994 showed that  $\text{HNO}_3$  values were again beginning to rise. Comparison of the South Pole data with the MLS data in the vortex inner core suggests that  $\text{HNO}_3$  replenishment over the pole starts later and progresses more slowly than that at slightly lower latitudes.

In discussing the observed slow increase in  $\text{HNO}_3$  in the lower stratosphere during the spring/summer period, *de Zafra et al.* [1997] note that evaporation of any PSCs remaining when temperatures rise above PSC existence thresholds toward the end of winter would result in an immediate release of  $\text{HNO}_3$  and rapid increase in gas-phase abundances. Since heterogeneous reactions on PSCs can serve as a source for  $\text{HNO}_3$ , an excess of  $\text{HNO}_3$  could then persist for several weeks until  $\text{HNO}_3$  photolysis reestablished photochemical equilibrium.

*de Zafrá et al.* [1997] conclude that gravitational settling of the particles removed the  $\text{HNO}_3$  to lower altitudes where, even if released back to the gas phase, it could not be detected by their instrument.

Interestingly, the MLS data indicate increasing  $\text{HNO}_3$  mixing ratios at 465 K while temperatures at that level remain low. However, it must be borne in mind that the combined effects of denitrification and dehydration alter the PSC existence thresholds as winter progresses. For example, assuming 12 ppbv of  $\text{HNO}_3$  and 4.5 ppmv of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  at 50 hPa, the existence thresholds for water ice and nitric acid trihydrate (NAT, using the formula of *Hanson and Mauersberger* [1988]) PSCs are  $\sim 188$  K and  $\sim 195$  K, respectively. In the wake of severe denitrification/dehydration, assuming 1 ppbv of  $\text{HNO}_3$  and 2.5 ppmv of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  at 50 hPa (based on MLS data in mid-August), the existence thresholds for water ice and NAT PSCs drop to  $\sim 185$  K and  $\sim 190$  K, respectively. In Plate 9 we compare the MLS  $\text{HNO}_3$  measurements to UKMO temperatures in light of these estimated PSC existence thresholds. Comparisons of this kind are necessarily limited by the uncertainties associated with each data set. *Manney et al.* [1996b] found that systematic biases between the UKMO temperatures and radiosonde observations at 50 hPa at high southern latitudes were less than 1 K throughout the winter, although differences on individual days can be much larger.

During the UARS years, average 465 K temperatures in the vortex inner core typically stop decreasing in mid-July, with the lowest values at or just below 185 K. Because of a combination of yaw maneuvers and data outages, MLS never observed the southern vortex between mid-July and early-August. By the beginning of the next MLS observing period, the average temperatures have risen above 185 K (to  $\sim 188$  K in 1992–1994). It is possible that the increase in average temperature above the 185 K level triggers the evaporation of any remaining water ice PSCs. Since these PSCs can also incorporate  $\text{HNO}_3$  vapor, either through the simultaneous cocondensation of  $\text{HNO}_3$  and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  molecules during ice growth or as NAT particles that serve as condensation nuclei for ice crystals [*Toon et al.*, 1989b; *Turco et al.*, 1989], this mechanism could be responsible for the initial release of  $\text{HNO}_3$  between observing



periods hinted at by the MLS data.

Throughout the August/September observing period, the  $\text{HNO}_3$  mixing ratios are strongly correlated with temperature in the vortex inner core region. In addition to exhibiting an overall increasing trend with temperature, the  $\text{HNO}_3$  also fluctuates with small temperature changes. This is apparently true even when temperatures are slightly above 190 K. Caution must be exercised with this interpretation, however, since occasionally the PV gradients become sufficiently strong that the contour defining the vortex “inner core” actually clips the collar region of high  $\text{HNO}_3$ ; this effect, coupled with larger collar-region abundances than in other years (see Plate 1), is at least partially responsible for the step up in average  $\text{HNO}_3$  mixing ratios in mid-August 1994 and for the consistently higher average  $\text{HNO}_3$  values in late-August 1996. Nevertheless, the rapidity of the  $\text{HNO}_3$  rebound during this period of generally rising (though still low) temperature and the fact that  $\text{HNO}_3$  continues to display variations with temperature suggest that the lower stratosphere has not been completely denitrified through particle sedimentation even in late winter. In addition, small temperature decreases can still lead to  $\text{HNO}_3$  depletion through renewed PSC formation. Measurements of aerosol extinction by CLAES also demonstrate that intermittent localized PSC events continue to occur at 465 K until at least mid-September [Santee *et al.*, 1996a; Mergenthaler *et al.*, 1997], and measurements of aerosol extinction at high southern latitudes by the Polar Ozone and Aerosol Measurement (POAM) II solar occultation instrument indicate the occurrence of PSCs at the 20-km level as late as mid-October [Fromm *et al.*, 1997].

Alternatively, the  $\text{HNO}_3$  replenishment may arise through dynamical processes. Although either mixing of the denitrified and the collar regions inside the vortex or mixing of midlatitude air deep into the vortex would increase  $\text{HNO}_3$  abundances in the Antarctic vortex inner core, calculations have shown that neither of these processes operates to a significant degree prior to the breakup of the vortex much later in the spring [e.g., Schoeberl *et al.*, 1992; Bowman, 1993; Manney *et al.*, 1994b]. That  $\text{HNO}_3$  abundances in the collar region remain relatively constant and enhanced throughout the winter season (Plate 9) implies that the core and the

collar regions stay essentially separate and thus also argues against a substantial amount of large-scale horizontal mixing.

A more plausible dynamical explanation for the observed  $\text{HNO}_3$  increase starting in August is diabatic descent bringing air with higher  $\text{HNO}_3$  concentrations down to the 465-K level. Although the uncertainties are large, trajectory calculations by *Manney et al.* [1994b] have indicated that, in the southern hemisphere, air parcels in the lower stratosphere continue to descend until mid-October and most of the parcels at the 465-K level remain confined inside the vortex (or its remnants) until mid-December. Similar conclusions have been reached from observational studies of long-lived tracers [*Crewell et al.*, 1995; *Abrams et al.*, 1996a]. Therefore ongoing descent probably contributes to  $\text{HNO}_3$  increases at 465 K into the spring, with its effect diminishing in late winter as the descent rate becomes small. However, a rough estimate based on MLS data suggests that a vortex-averaged descent rate on the order of 1–2 K/day would be necessary throughout the late-winter period to sustain the observed  $\text{HNO}_3$  increase. As this value is unrealistically large [e.g., *Manney et al.*, 1994b], descent cannot be solely responsible for the  $\text{HNO}_3$  recovery, nor would it be expected to be so closely correlated with small temperature variations.

We conclude that renitrification at 465 K is likely achieved through a combination of PSC evaporation and continuing weak diabatic descent. Full understanding of the  $\text{HNO}_3$  mixing ratios in the southern hemisphere late winter/early spring requires extensive modeling efforts, beyond the scope of this study, to characterize and quantify the simultaneous (and, in some cases, competing) effects of PSC evaporation, recurring PSC formation, continuing heterogeneous reactions on PSC particles and background sulfate aerosols (a potential source of  $\text{HNO}_3$ ), permanent removal through gravitational settling of PSC particles, vertical transport, horizontal mixing, and photodissociation, although the current levels of uncertainty in both models and data compared to the relatively small changes shown in Plate 9 may preclude a definitive budget analysis at this time.

### 4.3. Interhemispheric Comparisons

Returning to Plate 8, overlaid on the northern hemisphere plot is a black line representing the daily averages calculated from the southern hemisphere data points in every year. This allows the very dissimilar progression of the high-latitude  $\text{HNO}_3$  in the two hemispheres to be compared. Although the early-winter tendency is similar in both hemispheres, the steep decreasing trends in the  $75\text{--}80^\circ\text{S}$  and  $70\text{--}75^\circ\text{S}$  bands in June stand in strong contrast to the behavior in the  $75\text{--}80^\circ\text{N}$  and  $70\text{--}75^\circ\text{N}$  bands in December, when the  $\text{HNO}_3$  is still high or even increasing through the action of diabatic descent. Whereas in the Antarctic the  $\text{HNO}_3$  mixing ratios increase from August to November as they recover from severe denitrification, in the Arctic they decrease from March through May. A similar decreasing trend was seen in vortex-averaged  $\text{HNO}_3$  at 465 K by *Santee et al.* [1997]. Since this gradual reduction in  $\text{HNO}_3$  mixing ratios in the north takes place even in years when PSC activity is minimal, continues well past the time of ongoing PSC activity in every year, and occurs during the corresponding recovery period in the south, it is unlikely to be related to denitrification. Rather, it probably results from increased amounts of sunlight leading to a greater degree of  $\text{HNO}_3$  photolysis in combination with enhanced mixing of vortex and lower-latitude air as the vortex erodes. Again, a more definitive answer must await detailed modeling of  $\text{HNO}_3$  photochemistry and transport processes. By the end of November (May) in the south (north), the zonal-mean  $\text{HNO}_3$  abundances at the highest latitudes are once again in agreement in the two hemispheres.

The wintertime disparity between the two hemispheres is also significant in the  $65\text{--}70^\circ$  band. However, the results for the two hemispheres are virtually indistinguishable for the  $60\text{--}65^\circ$  band and the bands equatorward, even during the winter months. This has several implications. One is that the amount of mixing between denitrified and unperturbed air is relatively small in the outer portion of the vortex (at least in the zonal mean), since otherwise a higher degree of inconsistency would be expected between the north and the south. Similar arguments were made on the basis of MLS  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  data by *Morrey and Harwood* [1998]. The conclusion that little mixing occurs inside the vortex is also consistent with the calculations of

*Schoeberl et al.* [1992] and *Bowman* [1993].

Another inference that can be drawn from the results of Plate 8 is that the effects of severe denitrification are confined in both space and time to the regions poleward of  $65^{\circ}\text{S}$  during the winter and early spring. This result is contrary to the conclusions of *Tuck et al.* [1994], who used the correlation between  $\text{NO}_y$  (total reactive nitrogen) and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  measured during both Arctic and Antarctic aircraft campaigns to argue for the significant spread of denitrification from the vortex to midlatitudes above 400 K during winter. A recent analysis by *Keim et al.* [1997], again based on  $\text{NO}_y/\text{N}_2\text{O}$  correlations from aircraft measurements, also found little evidence that export of denitrified air from the vortex influenced the midlatitude  $\text{NO}_y$  budget above 400 K during the winter.

The agreement between northern and southern hemisphere  $\text{HNO}_3$  abundances in the  $60\text{--}65^{\circ}$  and  $55\text{--}60^{\circ}$  bands (and equatorward) shown in Plate 8 implies that the global impact of severe denitrification is minimal, at least over the large spatial scales represented in zonal means. This is true not only during the winter, but after the breakup of the vortex as well.  $\text{HNO}_3$  mixing ratios increase through the winter in both hemispheres at these latitudes, presumably through diabatic descent and/or heterogeneous reactions on sulfate aerosols, and then begin to decrease in the spring. That the decrease in midlatitude zonal-mean  $\text{HNO}_3$  abundances in spring follows the same trend in both hemispheres argues against a substantial role for the mixing in of denitrified air as the vortex dissipates, since the north does not experience widespread intense denitrification. Of course, this process could affect local  $\text{HNO}_3$  abundances on spatial scales not discernable in the zonal-mean values (or indeed in the MLS data at all). It is more likely that the springtime decrease observed in the midlatitude zonal-mean mixing ratios is related to the increasing  $\text{HNO}_3$  photolysis rate. Furthermore, at the highest latitudes, where Antarctic denitrification is most severe, zonal-mean  $\text{HNO}_3$  abundances recover to similar values at the end of every winter in both hemispheres. Thus even at the latitudes where denitrification actually occurs it has no long-term large-scale influence beyond the winter and early-spring period when the vortex is still largely intact.

## 5. Summary and Implications

We examined measurements of gas-phase  $\text{HNO}_3$  made by the UARS MLS instrument through six complete annual cycles in both hemispheres. To provide an overview of the seasonal, interhemispheric, and interannual variations in the distribution of  $\text{HNO}_3$  in the lower stratosphere, we presented maps at 465 K for selected days in each of the 5 north-looking and 5 south-looking MLS observing periods in each year. Climatological fields representative of the different seasons were then constructed by averaging together the data from the individual days in each year. The zonal mean evolution was explored through time series of MLS  $\text{HNO}_3$  at 465 K as a function of latitude over complete annual cycles; again, zonal-mean climatological fields were derived by averaging together the results for the individual years. The extent of interannual and interhemispheric differences in the  $\text{HNO}_3$  seasonal cycle was then investigated by calculating daily means from data binned into  $5^\circ$  latitude bands between  $40^\circ$  and  $80^\circ$  in both hemispheres. Because  $\text{HNO}_3$  is strongly correlated with the polar vortex during winter, averages of  $\text{HNO}_3$  calculated within PV contours representative of vortex “inner core” and “collar” regions at the 465-K level were also shown for the southern hemisphere.

Consistent with many previous studies (see section 3), the MLS  $\text{HNO}_3$  data display a large variation with latitude and a pronounced seasonal cycle at middle and high latitudes in both hemispheres, whereas the seasonal cycle at lower latitudes is much weaker. The MLS data reveal that, outside of the winter polar regions, zonal-mean  $\text{HNO}_3$  mixing ratios are comparable in the two hemispheres in all corresponding latitude bands and in all years examined. Except at high latitudes, interannual variability is minimal, and there does not appear to be a significant hemispheric asymmetry in the overall  $\text{HNO}_3$  distribution or its seasonal cycle.

Because  $\text{HNO}_3$  mixing ratios at 465 K in the winter polar regions are primarily controlled by meteorological conditions (the strength of the diabatic descent, the permeability of the vortex, the extent and duration of low temperatures), they exhibit a large degree of interannual variability, particularly in the Arctic. Although the early-winter trends are similar in the north

and the south, the  $\text{HNO}_3$  behavior diverges in the two hemispheres as winter progresses. In general, the peak  $\text{HNO}_3$  mixing ratios attained during winter are larger in the Arctic than in the Antarctic. Significant interhemispheric differences in PSC activity lead to distinctly different patterns of  $\text{HNO}_3$  depletion, with the Antarctic experiencing widespread severe denitrification while the gas-phase  $\text{HNO}_3$  loss in the Arctic is less intense, more localized, and more transient. However, the MLS data indicate that denitrification is not complete even in the Antarctic. The rapidity of the recovery in  $\text{HNO}_3$  abundances during the mid- to late-winter period (when temperatures, though still low, are generally rising) and the fact that  $\text{HNO}_3$  continues to fluctuate with small changes in temperature suggest that not all PSC particles sediment out of the lower stratosphere. We conclude that renitrification at 465 K is most likely achieved through a combination of PSC evaporation and continuing weak diabatic descent.

Despite the large interhemispheric and interannual differences in the extent and duration of PSC activity and denitrification, the zonal-mean  $\text{HNO}_3$  abundances at the highest latitudes are once again in agreement in the two hemispheres by the end of November (May) in the south (north). Thus the  $\text{HNO}_3$  recovers to similar values at the end of every winter and in both the Arctic and the Antarctic. Furthermore, the averaged  $\text{HNO}_3$  values for the two hemispheres are virtually indistinguishable for latitudes equatorward of  $65^\circ$ , even during the winter months. This implies that the effects of severe denitrification are confined in both space and time to the regions poleward of  $65^\circ\text{S}$  during the winter and early spring. We conclude that, at least in a zonal mean sense, denitrification does not have a strong influence on midlatitudes, either during or after the winter, nor does it have a long-term impact at high latitudes; that is, there is no “memory” from one winter to another.

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## Figure Captions

**Plate 1.** Maps of MLS  $\text{HNO}_3$  (parts per billion by volume, ppbv) for selected days during each of the five south-looking yaw periods that occur each year, for the years 1991–92 to 1997–98 (see text and Table 1). Maps are missing for days on which no MLS data are available. The data have been interpolated onto the 465-K potential temperature surface using UKMO temperatures. The maps are polar orthographic projections extending to the equator, with the Greenwich meridian at the top and with dashed black circles at  $30^\circ\text{S}$  and  $60^\circ\text{S}$ ; blank spaces represent data gaps or bad data points. Superimposed in white are two contours of UKMO potential vorticity (PV):  $-0.25 \times 10^{-4} \text{ K m}^2 \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$  (to represent the approximate edge of the winter polar vortex at this level) and  $-0.30 \times 10^{-4} \text{ K m}^2 \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$  (a second contour to indicate the steepness of the PV gradient and thus the strength of the vortex). Superimposed in black are two contours of UKMO temperature: 195 K (the approximate existence threshold for type I polar stratospheric clouds (PSCs) and 188 K (the ice frost point).

**Plate 2.** As in Plate 1, for selected days during each of the five north-looking yaw periods in the years 1991–92 to 1996–97 (see text and Table 2), with the Greenwich meridian at the bottom and positive PV contour values.

**Plate 3.** Southern (left) and northern (right) hemisphere climatologies at 465 K derived by averaging together the individual days for each yaw period shown in Plates 1 or 2. Thus each climatology is based on a single day from at least 4 and at most 6 years of data. Also overlaid, as in Plates 1 and 2, are the averaged temperature and PV fields from the UKMO analyses.



**Plate 4.** Differences (in ppbv) from the mid-June climatology of Plate 3 for each of the mid-June days represented in Plate 1 (left) and from the mid-January climatology for each of the mid-January days (right). The  $-0.25 \times 10^{-4} \text{ K m}^2 \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$  value of the averaged UKMO PV field (as in Plate 3) is shown as a solid white contour, whereas the  $-0.25 \times 10^{-4} \text{ K m}^2 \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$  PV value on each individual day (as in Plate 1) is shown as a dotted white contour. Similarly, the 195 K value of the averaged UKMO temperature field is shown as a solid black contour, whereas the 195 K temperature value on each individual day is shown as a dotted black contour.

**Plate 5.** MLS  $\text{HNO}_3$  at 465 K as a function of latitude for each of the individual days in Plates 1 and 2, arranged with the 5 south-looking yaw periods plotted on the left and the 5 north-looking yaw periods plotted on the right. The data for each day have been binned into  $5^\circ$  latitude bands and averaged. Different years are represented by different colors as indicated in the legend.

**Plate 6.** Time series of daily zonal-mean MLS  $\text{HNO}_3$  at 465 K as a function of latitude for six annual cycles in both the southern (left side) and northern (right side) hemispheres, starting in early winter each year. The partial year 1997–98, which appears in the maps in Plate 1 but which includes data only from April through June 1997, is not shown. Blank spaces in the plots correspond to periods when data are missing or MLS was pointing in the opposite hemisphere.

**Plate 7.** Southern (top) and northern (bottom) hemisphere daily zonal-mean climatology of MLS  $\text{HNO}_3$  at 465 K as a function of latitude, obtained by averaging together for the respective hemispheres the results for the six individual years shown in Plate 6 plus the partial year 1997–98.

**Plate 8.** Time series of MLS  $\text{HNO}_3$  at 465 K binned into  $5^\circ$  latitude bands and averaged, for the southern (left) and northern (right) hemispheres. Different years are represented by different colors as indicated in the legend. Daily averages calculated from the southern hemisphere data points in every year are overlaid on the northern hemisphere plot as a black line (shifted by six months so that comparable seasons are aligned). To facilitate comparison, the daily averages calculated from the northern hemisphere data points are also overlaid on the northern hemisphere plot as a grey line. Dotted vertical lines demark calendar months.

**Plate 9.** Time series of MLS  $\text{HNO}_3$  at 465 K averaged over vortex “inner core” (left, defined by  $\text{PV} > 0.48 \times 10^{-4} \text{ K m}^2 \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) and “collar” (right, defined by  $0.25 \times 10^{-4} \text{ K m}^2 \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1} < \text{PV} < 0.40 \times 10^{-4} \text{ K m}^2 \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) regions. Different years are represented by different colors as in Plate 8. Average (thick black line) and minimum (thin black line) UKMO temperatures in these regions are also shown. Horizontal grey lines denote temperatures of 185, 188, 190, and 195 K. Dotted vertical lines demark calendar months. Note that the horizontal axis has been expanded since only the three yaw periods during which the highest PV values exist are depicted.

## Tables

**Table 1.** Days Selected From Each of the 5 South-looking Yaw Periods in Each Year

year	early- April	mid- June	late- August	early- November	mid- January
1991–92	–	–	–	4 Nov	20 Jan
1992–93	1 Apr	15 Jun	26 Aug	4 Nov	20 Jan
1993–94	1 Apr	15 Jun	26 Aug	4 Nov	20 Jan
1994–95	1 Apr	15 Jun	26 Aug	5 Nov	–
1995–96	–	14 Jun	26 Aug	4 Nov	19 Jan
1996–97	2 Apr	15 Jun	26 Aug	4 Nov	–
1997–98	1 Apr	14 Jun	–	–	–

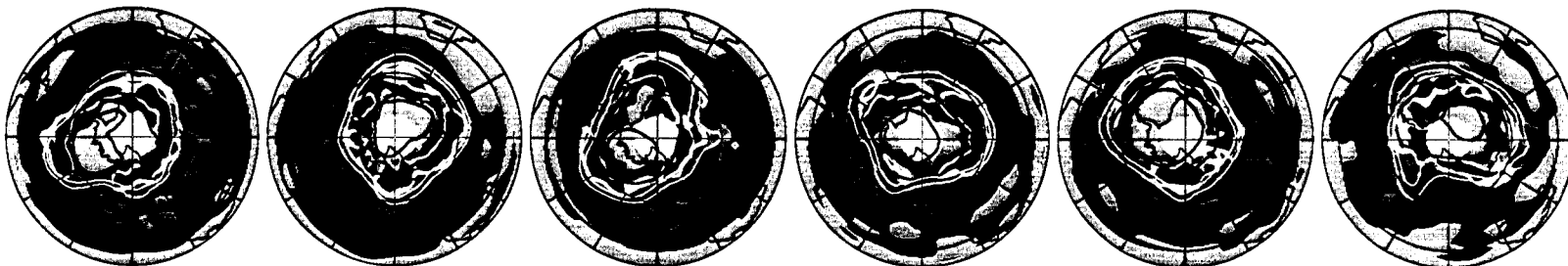
**Table 2.** Days Selected From Each of the 5 North-looking Yaw Periods in Each Year

year	early- October	mid- December	late- February	late- April	mid- July
1991–92	–	20 Dec	26 Feb	2 May	18 Jul
1992–93	1 Oct	20 Dec	26 Feb	30 Apr	18 Jul
1993–94	1 Oct	20 Dec	26 Feb	29 Apr	18 Jul
1994–95	1 Oct	21 Dec	28 Feb	–	–
1995–96	5 Oct	20 Dec	26 Feb	30 Apr	18 Jul
1996–97	2 Oct	18 Dec	26 Feb	30 Apr	–

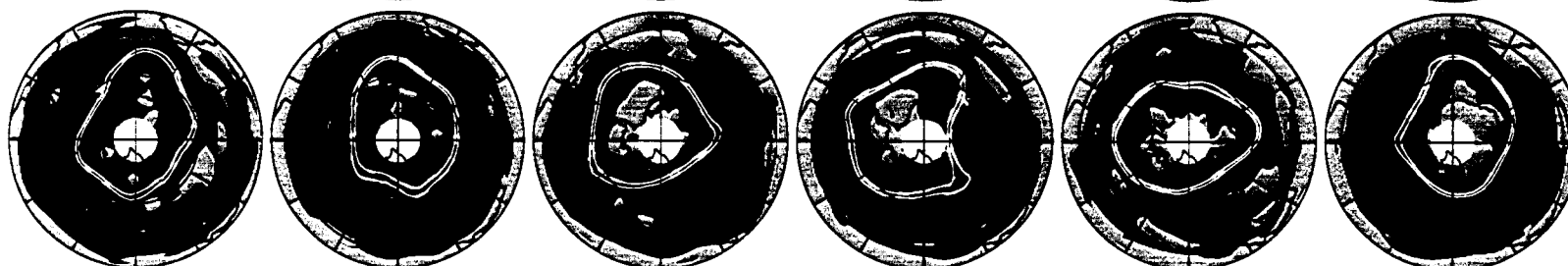
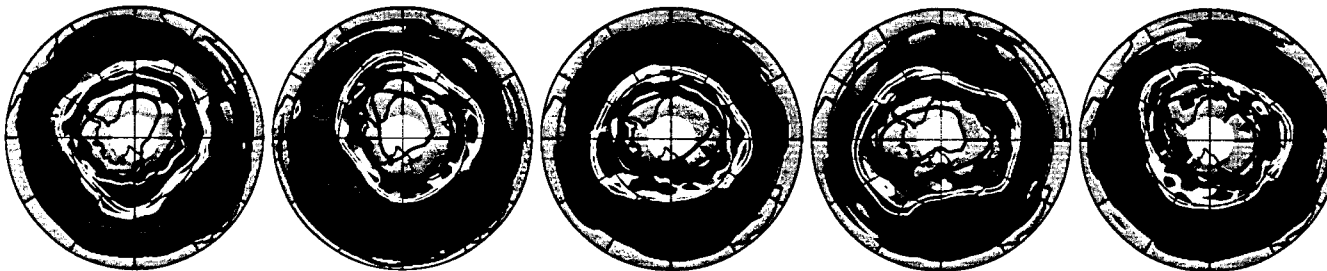
early-April



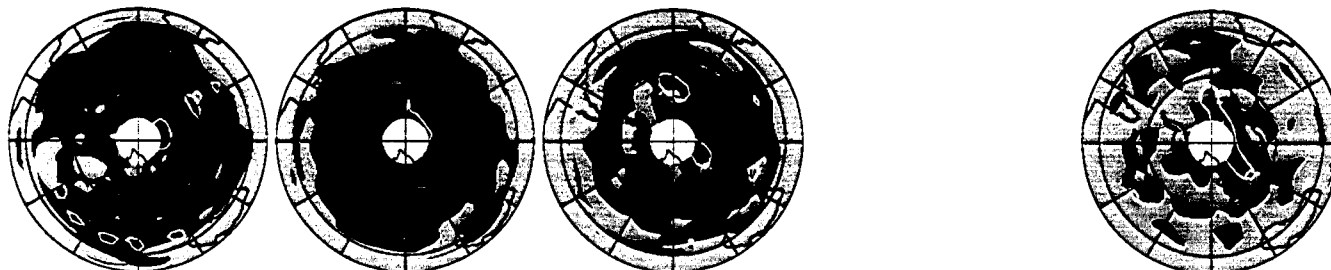
mid-June



late-August



early-November



mid-January

1991-92

1992-93

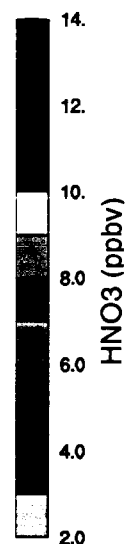
1993-94

1994-95

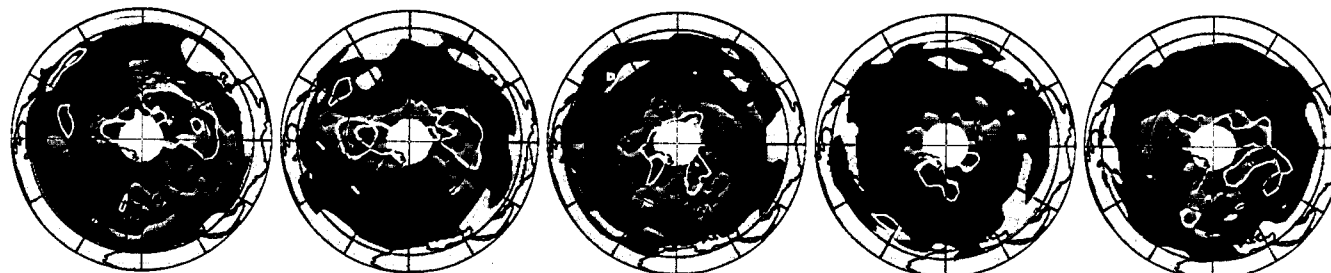
1995-96

1996-97

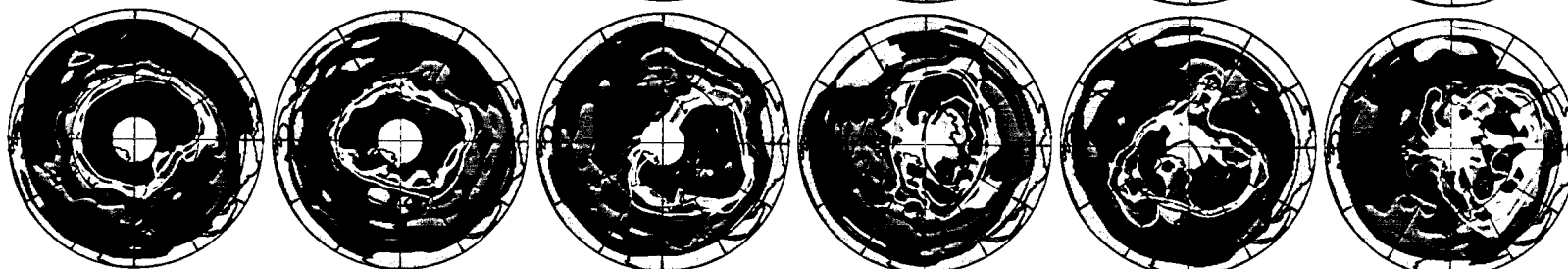
1997-98



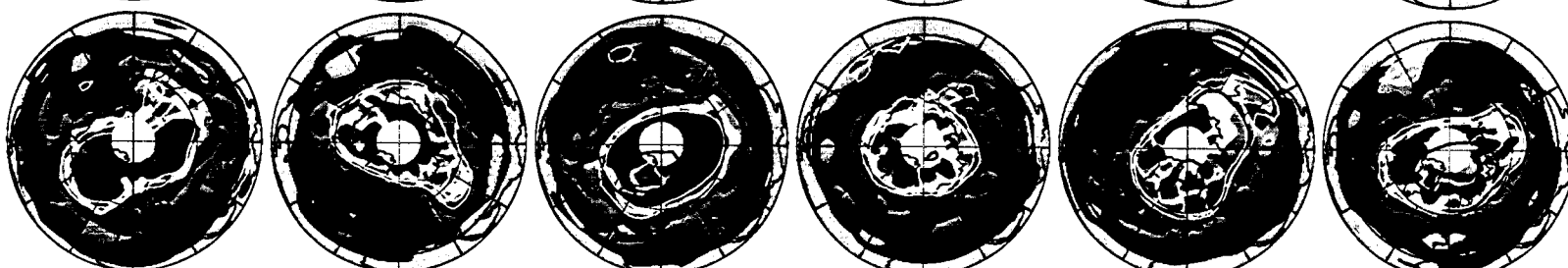
early-October



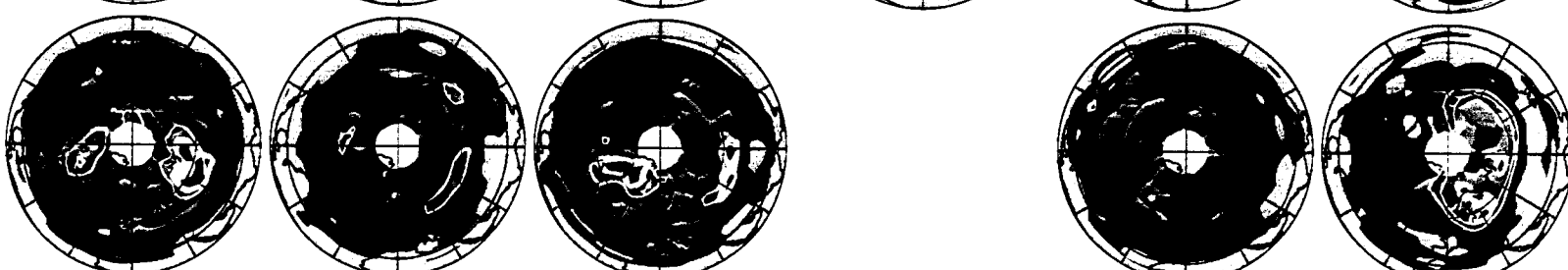
mid-December



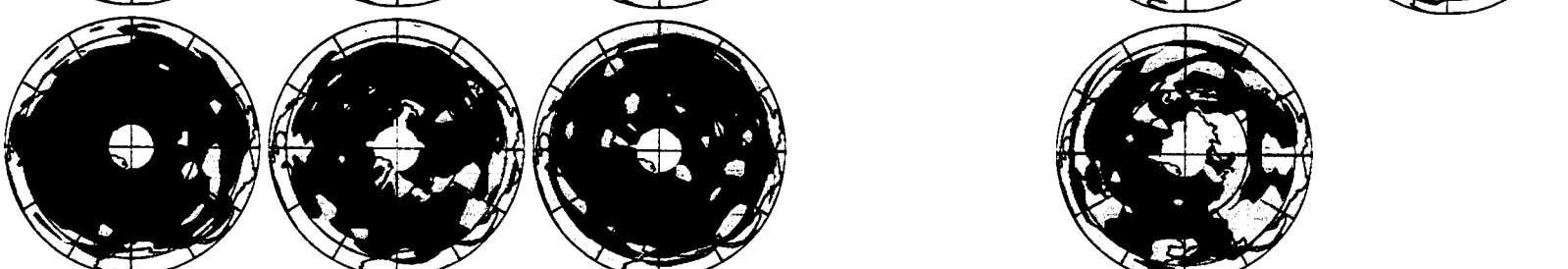
late-February



late-April



mid-July



1991-92

1992-93

1993-94

1994-95

1995-96

1996-97

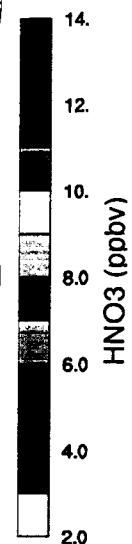
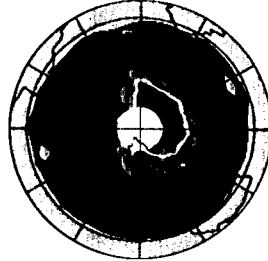


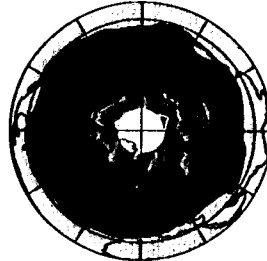
Plate 2

Southern Hemisphere      Northern Hemisphere

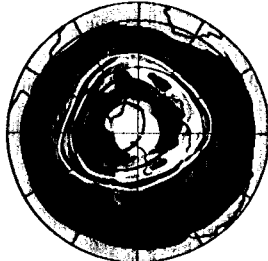
early-April



early-October



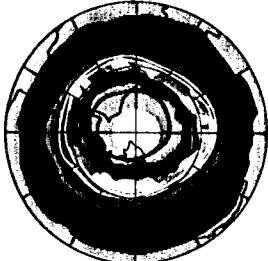
mid-June



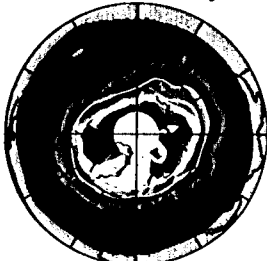
mid-December



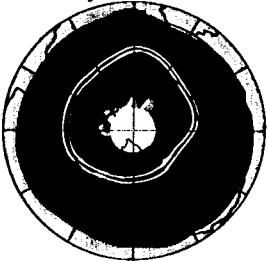
late-August



late-February



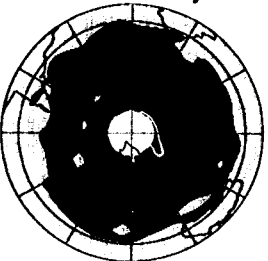
early-November



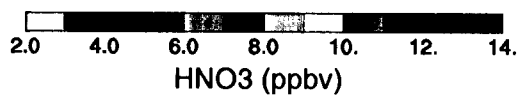
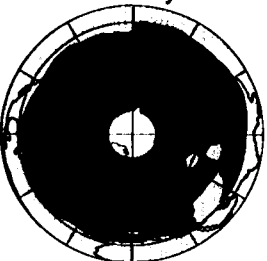
late-April



mid-January



mid-July



HNO3 (ppbv)

Plate 3



15 Jun 1992



20 Jan 1992



15 Jun 1993



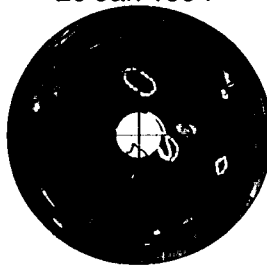
20 Jan 1993



15 Jun 1994



20 Jan 1994



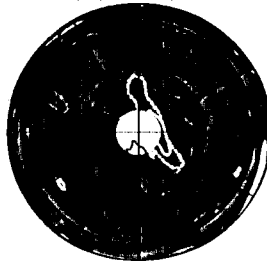
14 Jun 1995



15 Jun 1996



19 Jan 1996



14 Jun 1997

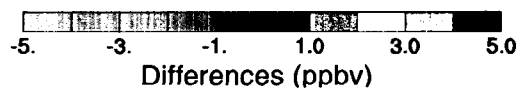
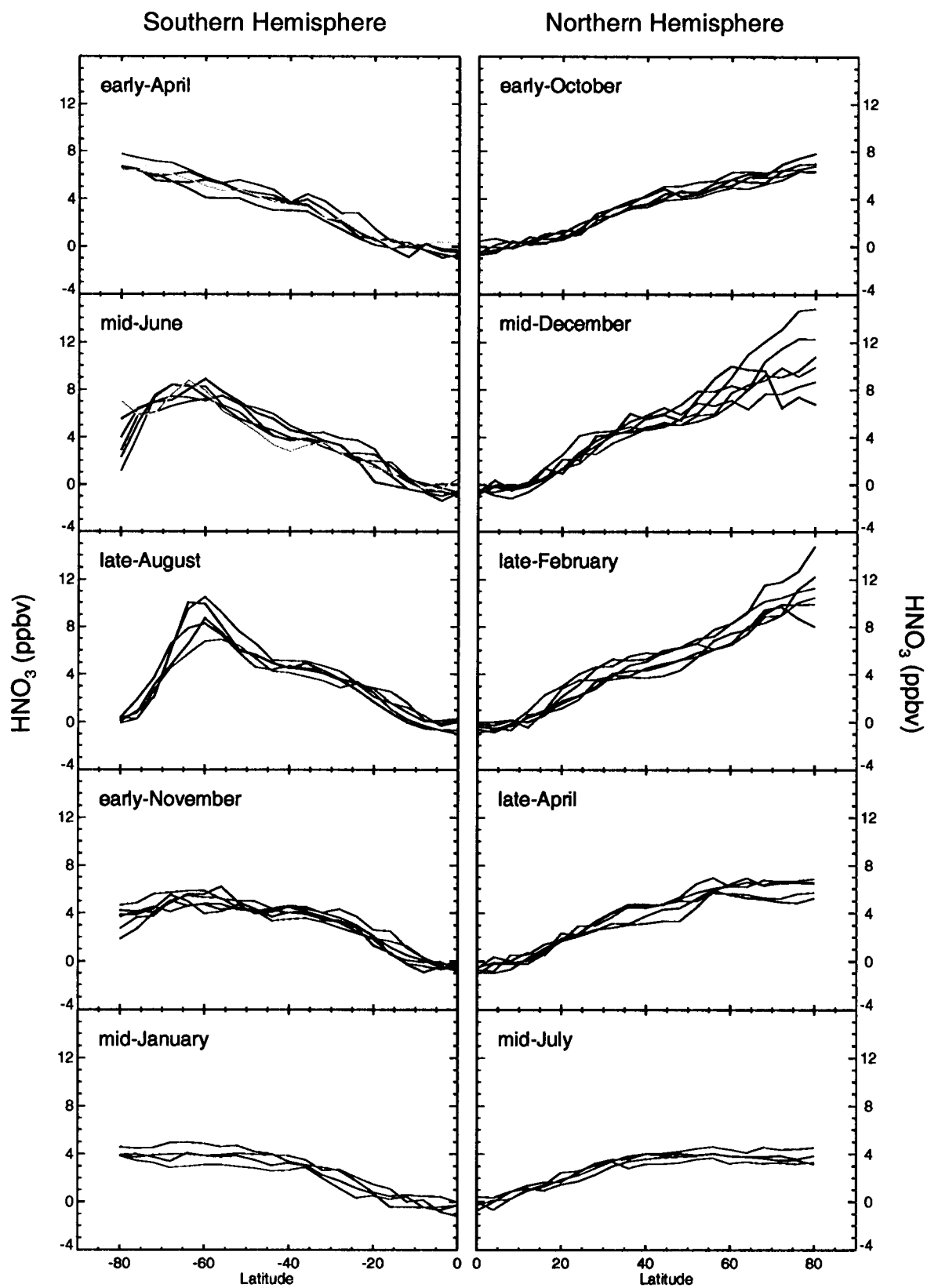


Plate 11



1991-92    1992-93    1993-94    1994-95    1995-96    1996-97    1997-98

Plate 5

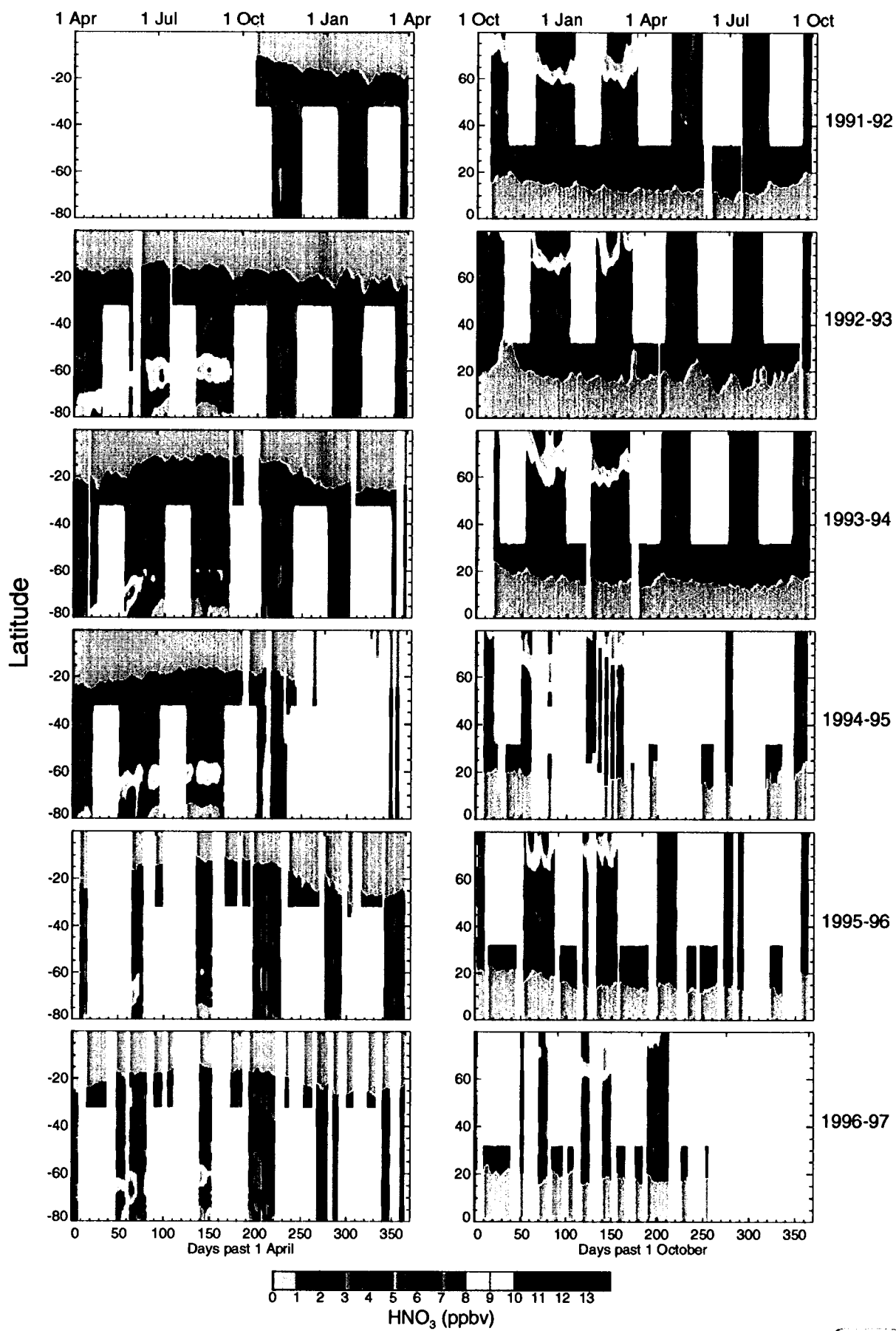


Plate 6

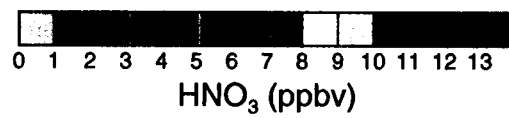
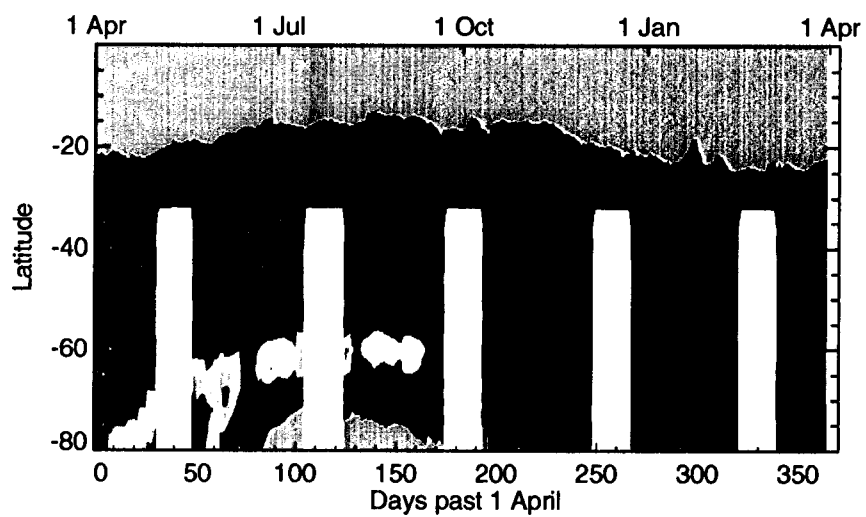
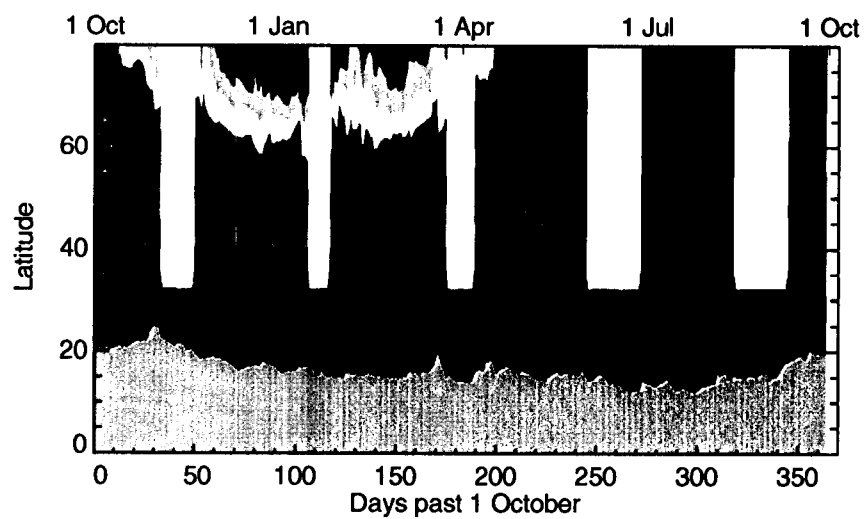
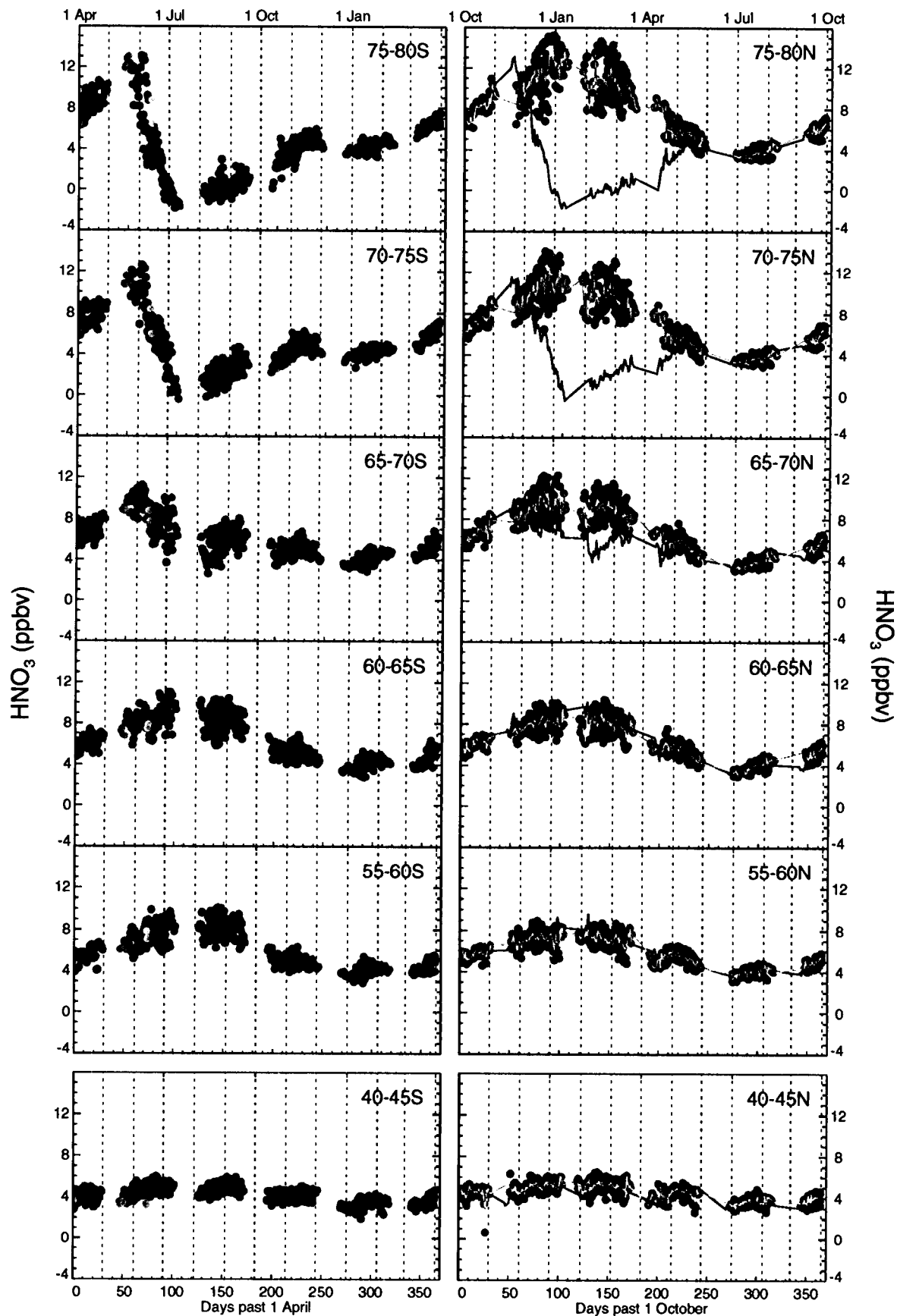


Plate 7

# Southern Hemisphere

# Northern Hemisphere



1991-92    1992-93    1993-94    1994-95    1995-96    1996-97    1997-98

